Lecture slides for

Automated Planning: Theory and Practice

# Chapter 4 State-Space Planning

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# Motivation

- Nearly all planning procedures are search procedures
- Different planning procedures have different search spaces
  - Two examples:
- State-space planning
  - Each node represents a state of the world
    - » A plan is a path through the space
- Plan-space planning
  - Each node is a set of partially-instantiated operators, plus some constraints
    - » Impose more and more constraints, until we get a plan

# Outline

- State-space planning
  - Forward search
  - Backward search
  - Lifting
  - STRIPS
  - Block-stacking



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# **Properties**

- Forward-search is *sound* 
  - for any plan returned by any of its nondeterministic traces, this plan is guaranteed to be a solution
- Forward-search also is *complete* 
  - if a solution exists then at least one of Forward-search's nondeterministic traces will return a solution.

# **Deterministic Implementations**

- Some deterministic implementations of forward search:
  - breadth-first search
  - best-first search
  - depth-first search
  - greedy search



- Breadth-first and best-first search are sound and complete
  - But they usually aren't practical because they require too much memory
  - Memory requirement is exponential in the length of the solution
- In practice, more likely to use a depth-first search or greedy search
  - Worst-case memory requirement is linear in the length of the solution
  - Sound but not complete
    - » But classical planning has only finitely many states
    - » Thus, can make depth-first search complete by doing loop-checking

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# **Branching Factor of Forward Search**



- Forward search can have a very large branching factor (see example)
- Why this is bad:
  - Deterministic implementations can waste time trying lots of irrelevant actions
- Need a good heuristic function and/or pruning procedure
  - See Section 4.5 (Domain-Specific State-Space Planning) and Part III (Heuristics and Control Strategies)

## **Backward Search**

• For forward search, we started at the initial state and computed state transitions

• new state =  $\gamma(s, a)$ 

• For backward search, we start at the goal and compute inverse state transitions

• new set of subgoals = 
$$\gamma^{-1}(g,a)$$

## **Inverse State Transitions**

- What do we mean by  $\gamma^{-1}(g,a)$ ?
- First need to define *relevance*:

• An action a is relevant for a goal g if

- » a makes at least one of g's literals true
  - $g \cap \text{effects}(a) \neq \emptyset$
- » a does not make any of g's literals false
  - $g^+ \cap \text{effects}(a) = \emptyset$
  - $g^- \cap \text{effects}^+(a) = \emptyset$
- If *a* is relevant for *g*, then
  - $\gamma^{-1}(g,a) = (g \text{effects}(a)) \cup \text{precond}(a)$

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```
Backward-search(O, s_0, g)

\pi \leftarrow the empty plan

loop

if s_0 satisfies g then return \pi

A \leftarrow \{a | a \text{ is a ground instance of an operator in } O

and \gamma^{-1}(g, a) is defined}

if A = \emptyset then return failure

nondeterministically choose an action a \in A

\pi \leftarrow a.\pi

g \leftarrow \gamma^{-1}(g, a)
```



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- Backward search's branching factor is small in our example
- There are cases where it can still be very large
  - Many more operator instances than needed



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• Can reduce the branching factor if we *partially* instantiate the operators

this is called *lifting* 

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# Lifted Backward Search

- More complicated than Backward-search
  - Have to keep track of what substitutions were performed
- But it has a much smaller branching factor

```
Lifted-backward-search(O, s_0, g)
    \pi \leftarrow the empty plan
    loop
        if s_0 satisfies g then return \pi
        A \leftarrow \{(o, \theta) | o \text{ is a standardization of an operator in } O,
                     \theta is an mgu for an atom of g and an atom of effects<sup>+</sup>(o),
                     and \gamma^{-1}(\theta(q), \theta(o)) is defined}
        if A = \emptyset then return failure
        nondeterministically choose a pair (o, \theta) \in A
        \pi \leftarrow the concatenation of \theta(o) and \theta(\pi)
        g \leftarrow \gamma^{-1}(\theta(g), \theta(o))
```

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# The Search Space is Still Too Large

- Lifted-backward-search generates a smaller search space than Backward-search, but it still can be quite large
  - If some subproblems are independent and something else causes problems elsewhere, we'll try all possible orderings before realizing there is no solution
  - More about this in Chapter 5 (Plan-Space Planning)



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## **Other Ways to Reduce the Search**

- Search-control strategies
  - ◆ I'll say a lot about this later
    - » Part III of the book
  - For now, just two examples
    - » STRIPS
    - » Block stacking

# **STRIPS**

- $\pi$  the empty plan
- do a modified backward search from g
  - instead of  $\gamma^{-1}(s, a)$ , each new set of subgoals is just precond(*a*)
  - whenever you find an action that's executable in the current state, then go forward on the current search path as far as possible, executing actions and appending them to π
  - repeat until all goals are satisfied



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# **Quick Review of Blocks World**



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### **The Sussman Anomaly**



On this problem, STRIPS can't produce an irredundant solution
 Try it and see

### **The Register Assignment Problem**

#### • State-variable formulation:

Initial state:	$\{value(r1)=3, value(r2)=5, value(r3)=0\}$
Goal:	{value(r1)=5, value(r2)=3}
Operator:	assign(r,v,r',v')
	precond: value( $r$ )= $v$ , value( $r$ )= $v$
	effects: value( $r$ )= $v'$

#### • STRIPS cannot solve this problem at all

## How to Fix?

#### • Several ways:

# Do something other than state-space search » e.g., Chapters 5–8

Use forward or backward state-space search, with *domain-specific* knowledge to prune the search space

- » Can solve both problems quite easily this way
- » Example: block stacking using forward search

# **Domain-Specific Knowledge**

- A blocks-world planning problem  $P = (O, s_0, g)$  is solvable if  $s_0$  and g satisfy some simple consistency conditions
  - » g should not mention any blocks not mentioned in  $s_0$
  - » a block cannot be on two other blocks at once

» etc.

- Can check these in time O(n log n)
- If *P* is solvable, can easily construct a solution of length O(2*m*), where *m* is the number of blocks
  - Move all blocks to the table, then build up stacks from the bottom
    - » Can do this in time O(n)
- With additional domain-specific knowledge can do even better ...

# **Additional Domain-Specific Knowledge**

A block x needs to be moved if any of the following is true:
s contains ontable(x) and g contains on(x,y)
s contains on(x,y) and g contains ontable(x)
s contains on(x,y) and g contains on(x,z) for some y≠z
s contains on(x,y) and y needs to be moved



# **Domain-Specific Algorithm**

#### loop

if there is a clear block x such that x needs to be moved **and** x can be moved to a place where it won't need to be moved then move x to that place else if there is a clear block x such that x needs to be moved then move x to the table else if the goal is satisfied then return the plan а else return failure d b repeat е С С





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# **Easily Solves the Sussman Anomaly**

loop

if there is a clear block x such that x needs to be moved **and** x can be moved to a place where it won't need to be moved then move x to that place else if there is a clear block x such that x needs to be moved then move x to the table else if the goal is satisfied then return the plan else return failure а repeat С b





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goal

# **Properties**

• The block-stacking algorithm:

Sound, complete, guaranteed to terminate

- Runs in time  $O(n^3)$ 
  - » Can be modified to run in time O(n)
- Often finds optimal (shortest) solutions
- But sometimes only near-optimal (Exercise 4.22 in the book)
  - » Recall that PLAN LENGTH is NP-complete